

Understanding The Significance of Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides in Seed Physiology

ABSTRACT: -

Seed vigour and longevity are pivotal agronomic traits with profound implications for crop yield, food security, and the global economy. Seed longevity, often defined by the duration of seed viability, is crucial for effective gene bank management, influencing seed regeneration cycles and ensuring the long-term conservation of plant genetic resources. The inevitable process of seed deterioration, driven by a complex network of biochemical reactions, leads to altered metabolism and damage to critical cellular components such as membranes, DNA, mitochondria, proteins, and the antioxidativedefense system. In recent research, Raffinose family oligosaccharides (RFOs) have emerged as key contributors to enhancing seed vigour and longevity. These sugars perform multiple functions in plants, including tolerance to abiotic and biotic stresses, regulation of seed germination, and maintenance of desiccation tolerance, all of which are essential for overall seed health. Studies suggest that RFOs significantly bolster seed vigour and longevity through mechanisms such as cytoplasmic vitrification, water replacement, and osmoprotection in dried seeds. These oligosaccharides are particularly abundant in the seeds of leguminous crops and are also found in roots and specialized storage organs. The glassy state formed by RFOs is vital for protecting cells from oxidative damage caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS), enhancing the stability of enzymes, and preventing deleterious conformational changes in proteins. Furthermore, delaying the degradation of RFOs has been shown to inhibit premature germination, underscoring their critical role in early seedling development and successful crop establishment.

Keywords: *Seed Longevity, Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides (RFOs), Seed Vigour, Desiccation Tolerance, Oxidative Damage*

1. INTRODUCTION

Ensuring the preservation of seed viability and vigour from the first crop planting to the subsequent sowing, whether it is within the same planting season or beyond, is crucial for the success of agriculture and the subsequent crop yield. Like all living beings, seeds likewise undergo the process of ageing, gradually decreasing their strength and capacity to survive until they eventually perish. Seed life encompasses the duration from the first growth stages to the point where seeds are no longer viable in a dry storage environment. The greatest lifespan achievable by seeds of a certain species may vary significantly from one another under similar conditions in the storeroom. Seed storability refers to the ability of seeds to stay viable during storage, and it is an important characteristic for preserving agricultural goods and germplasm in crops. Seed storability is a multifaceted trait influenced by hereditary and environmental variables throughout the process of seed production, development, and post-harvest.

41

42 1.1 Significance of the Seed Storability Research

43 Seed storability is described as the capacity to stay alive throughout storing and is a critical
44 particularity for agricultural product and germplasm preservation in crops
45 Variation among rice accessions that emerge from various eco-geographic locations. For instance,
46 Indica-type seeds retained their viability longer than Japonica-type seeds

47

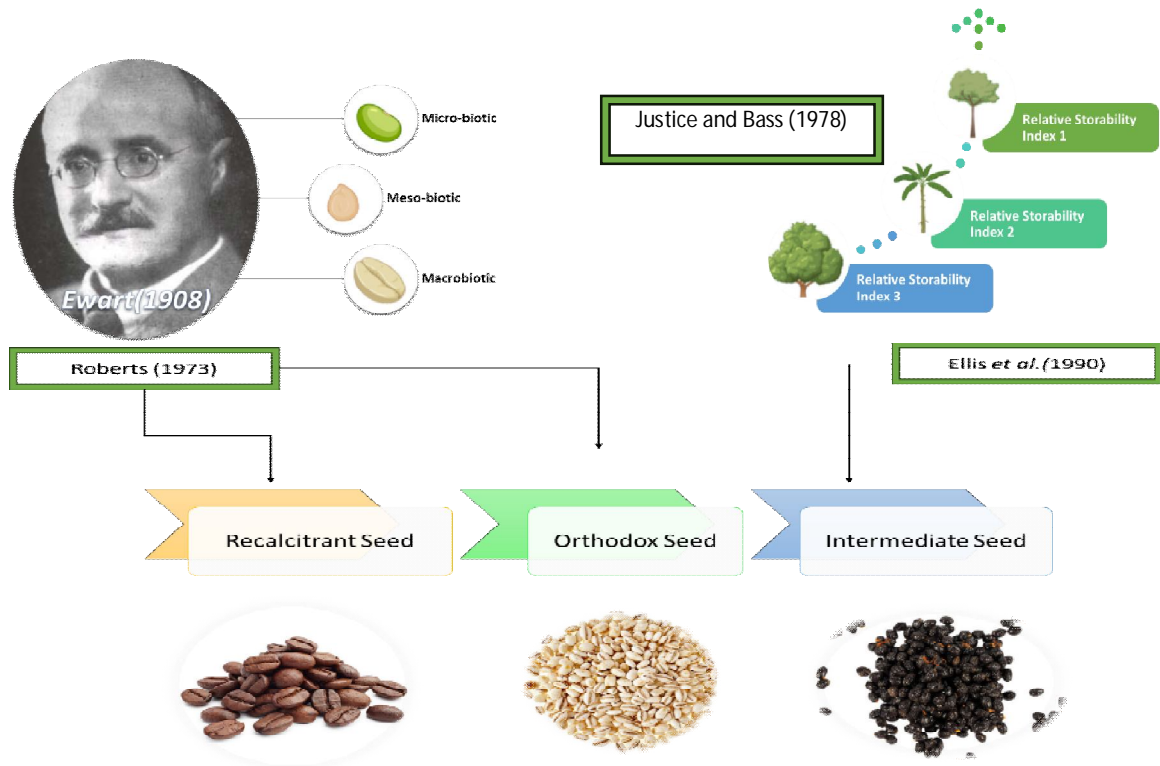
48 • Adaptive Advantage

49 • Major Advancement to Gene Banking

50 • Conservation of inheritable Diversity

51 • Successful Planning for the future season

52 • To study the effect of temperature and moisture content on Storage Condition



53 1.2 Classification of Seeds Based on Longevity:

54 Fig 1 : Classification of Seeds Based on Longevity

55

56 1.3 Rules for Determination of Seed Longevity:

57 a. Harrington's Thumb Rule

58 5% Reduction in Storage Temperature And 1% Reduction in Moisture Seed Longevity is
59 Doubled (Provided Storage Temperature Range of 0-50 degree C and Moisture Range of 5-

60 14%)

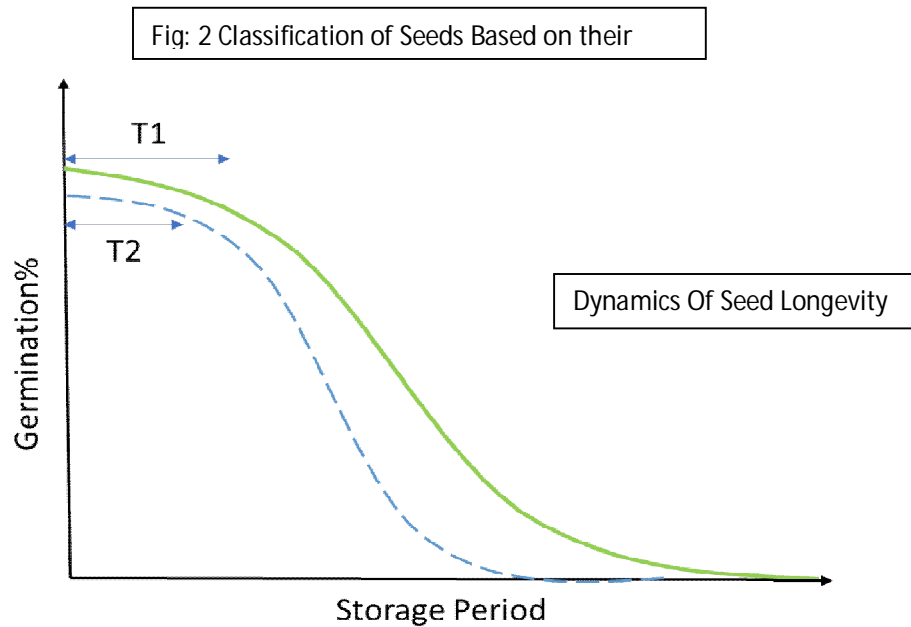
61 **b. James Rule:**

62 The temperature in Degrees Fahrenheit + Relative Humidity = Should not Exceed 100

63

64 **1.4 Dynamics Of Seed Longevity:**

- 65 • For all practical reasons, a Seed lot will be regarded rather than an individual seed
- 66 The viability curve of a seed lot at each time is typically sigmoid indicating a normal distribution
- 67
- 68 • The viability curve of a seed batch at each time is generally sigmoid showing a normal distribution
- 69
- 70
- 71 • In this T is the length after which the seed of a specific variety demonstrates quick and observable reduction in germination
- 72
- 73 • Tomato is an excellent storer (T1) as opposed to onion (T2) seen in the figure
- 74 • These results demonstrate that despite the storage environment, disparities exist in

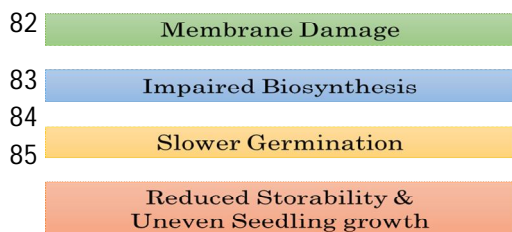


75 lifespan across species stored under the same setting (Singhal, N.C.,2009)

76 **1.5 Concept of SeedAgeing**

77 Seed ageing is a frequent physiological process during storage. It is a natural irreversible process that
78 happens and evolves together with the lengthening of the seed storage period. Ageing rates of plant
79 Anhydrobiotes are significantly reliant on the water content and temperature of storage,
80 circumstances (Singhal, N.C., 2009)

81



Seed Deterioration During
Ageing (Hayden et al 1972)

86
87
88
89
90
91
92

Fig 3: Physiological Changes occurring while seed deteriorates by

93

94 **2. STORABILITY OVERVIEW and KEY FACTORS REGULATING SEED STABILITY IN**
95 **STORAGE:**

96 **2.1 Seed Factors:**

97 The sustaining capability of orthodox seeds is associated with their cellular defense mechanism.
98 Following seed development, orthodox seeds experience maturity procedures, which involve a
99 decrease in moisture content plus cessation of metabolic activity. The arid state is considered to be
100 calm, and that helps in the possibility for storing seeds. During late seed maturity, plants develop
101 defensive mechanisms that involve the buildup of anti-oxidants, non-reducing carbohydrates, and
102 protective proteins such as late embryogenesis abundant (LEA) proteins, heat shock proteins (HSPs),
103 and lipocalins. The DNA in the nucleus is densely organized and chlorophyll is degraded. Seed
104 storage proteins serve as crucial substrates of oxidation, aiding in the regulation of reactive oxygen
105 species (ROS) generated throughout the process of dry storage. Due to the high sensitivity of
106 chlorophyll fluorescence measurements, the fluorescence levels of individual seeds can serve as an
107 indicator of seed maturity for those seeds that have chlorophyll during their entire development, which
108 is the case for most seeds. According to Ranganathan and Groot (2023), there is an inverse
109 relationship between the amount of fluorescence and the level of seed maturity. In other words, as the
110 level of fluorescence decreases, the rate of seed maturation increases.

111

112 **2.2 Function of Chemical Protectants in Different Tissues**

113 The primary pathogen throughout the storage of seeds is oxidative stress that is brought on by
114 reactive oxygen species (ROS). Antioxidants, both molecular and enzymatic, play a critical role in
115 the longevity of seeds. Enzymes have less mobility among molecules in the plasma when
116 conditions are dry, making it impossible for them to access the ROS. Lower molecular weight
117 antioxidants including glutathione, ascorbate (vitamin C), and tocopherols (tocopherols and
118 tocotrienols) are essential to seeds in these dry conditions. Tocopherols, particularly vitamin E
119 (alpha-tocopherol), are abundant in seeds and are lipophilic antioxidants that have been essential in
120 halting the oxidation of membranes as well as storage lipids. Arabidopsis mutants lacking in
121 vitamin E have significantly shorter seed lives. The two main types of water-soluble antioxidants
122 found in seeds include ascorbate and glutathione. The antioxidant population is going to run out
123 because enzymatic antioxidant replenishment is not possible at the low water content of dried
124 seeds. Elevated relative humidity (RH) or imbibition of seeds facilitates the enzymatic scavenging
125 of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by glutathione-reductase, superoxide dismutases, peroxidases,
126 and catalases. These digestive enzymes are involved in the renewal of molecular antioxidants as
127 well. Studies carried out on barley seeds revealed a decrease in tocopherol and glutathione levels
128 as the seeds grow older, under conditions of regulated deterioration at 45°C and 75% relative
129 humidity as well as arid gene banks to rampage.

130

131 Raffinose family oligosaccharides (RFOs), which include verbascose, stachyose, and raffinose,
132 are acquired by the cells during seed formation together with sucrose. It has been proposed that
133 such sugars have a role in the formation of the glassy state, which in turn prolongs seed life. As a
134 primary derivative of raffinose, galactinol is known to be shown to positively correlate with lifespan
135 in Arabidopsis, tomato, and cabbage seeds. This correlation has been confirmed by the shorter
136 life expectancy of seeds derived from Arabidopsis galactinol synthase mutants. In the previous
137 study, the lifespan of tomato and Arabidopsis seeds was assessed at 40°C and 85% relative
138 humidity. In contrast, cabbage seeds were stored in paper bags at 20°C with no RH control. In
139 Arabidopsis leaves, galactinol has also been shown to provide a defence against oxidative stress.

140

141 Late Embryogenesis abundant proteins (LEAs) and Heat shock proteins (HSPs) are produced
142 close to the end of the maturation process of seeds. Through maintaining structural proteins,
143 disassembling thylakoids in chloroplasts, condensation of chromatin, and stabilizing the glassy
144 cytoplasm, they contribute towards the preservation of seed survival.

145

146 The embryo and nutritive tissues are shielded by the seed coat, a type of maternal tissue that
147 creates a layer that provides security which serves both physiological as well as physical
148 purposes. At the end of the seed's development, the cells that make up the seed coat die. The
149 composition and arrangement of the seed coat, as well as the chemical and mechanical
150 protection of the seed and the possibility of longevity, are all regulated by metabolites gathered
151 throughout seed development. The seed coat is made up of flavonoids, lignins, and lignans,
152 which are polyphenols. Colourless polymeric substances gather in the vacuoles of the endothelial
153 cells' deepest layer throughout the first stages of seed formation. Afterwards, upon dehydration,
154 polyphenol oxidase oxidizes them to a brown colour, resulting in the creation of flavonoids known
155 as flavonols. By acting as antioxidants and scavenging reactive oxygen species, flavonoids
156 ultimately reduce oxidative stress. During conditions of rapid ageing, the dark-pigmented seeds of
157 Brassica napus, the plant that produces rapeseed, live long. Browning and reduced water
158 penetration of the seed coat may result from the peroxidation of flavonoids that build up in seed
159 coats. Proanthocyanidins (PAs), often referred to as concentrated tannins, are present in the seed
160 coat and may possess antibacterial properties as well, forming a chemical barrier that prevents
161 fungal infections. It additionally demonstrated that PAs was detrimental to bruchid larvae and
162 prevented their invasion of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*).

163

164 The monolignol units that constitute lignin are abundant in flax seeds. In addition to possessing
165 antioxidant properties, it is speculated to protect the seeds from mechanical damage.
166 Polyphenoloxidases, peroxidases, and chitinases are examples of defence-related proteins that
167 are upregulated in the testa of Arabidopsis and soybeans (*Glycine max*).

168

169

170 **2.3 Glassy State of Cytoplasm:**

- 171 • As seeds mature, drying causes the cytoplasm to shift from a fluid state to a glass-like
172 viscosity, disrupting normal crystal structures.
- 173 • The glassy state significantly reduces molecular mobility, which halts cellular metabolism and
174 stabilizes cellular components.
- 175 • This reduction in deteriorative processes consequently prolongs the lifespan of seeds.
- 176 • The transition to the glass phase is crucial for maintaining the seeds' physiological state and
177 their ability to respond to external factors. (Nadarajan, et al., 2023)

178

179 **2.4 Temperature:**

- 180 • Seeds decay more rapidly in warmer environments due to the increased rate of chemical
181 oxidation. As a result, gene banks are recommended to dry and store valuable germplasm at
182 sub-zero temperatures to slow down this process.

- 183
- 184
- 185
- 186
- 187
- 188
- Increasing the temperature lowers the glass transition temperature (T_g) at which the glass phase transition happens.
 - Seeds with intermediate storage behaviour, such as those from oil palm, may tolerate desiccation but are sensitive to storage in sub-zero conditions. (Ranganathan, U., & Groot, S. P. C., 2023)

189 **2.5 Oxygen:**

- 190
- 191
- 192
- 193
- 194
- 195
- 196
- 197
- The primary reason for seed deterioration in dry conditions is oxidation. Higher oxygen concentrations accelerate seed ageing.
 - In dry storage environments, molecular oxygen is a key source of reactive oxygen species (ROS).
 - Seeds contain a high concentration of metal ions like Fe^{3+} , Cu^{2+} , and Zn^{2+} .
 - When molecular oxygen interacts with these metal cofactors (Fe, Zn, Cu), it leads to the formation of ROS.

198 **2.6 Moisture Content, Water Activity:**

199 Dampness is the main factor that leads to seed deterioration in conventional seed preservation. For
200 the majority of chemical and enzymatic activities, water serves as an essential factor. Moisture,
201 oxygen, and temperature cause lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids—essential components that
202 constitute living things—to oxidize more quickly. The oxidative breakdown of unsaturated fatty acids in
203 the oil bodies and membranes is what leads to deterioration in the oily or highly lipophilic portion.
204 Breakdown of the non-oily, or hydrophilic, portion is primarily triggered by macromolecule cross-
205 linking including oxidation of proteins, DNA, as well as RNA. Harrington (1972) established a first rule
206 of thumb for the quantitative impact of humidity upon seed ageing, stating approximately a 1%
207 decrease in seed moisture level increases the expected lifespan of the seeds to double when the
208 percentage of moisture in seeds is between 5% and 14%.

209

210 It is important to distinguish among seed moisture quantity and water usage, or storage relative
211 humidity (RH) when researching the effects of moisture upon seed ageing. In the past, statistics on
212 the moisture level of seeds were used to characterize them as part of the seed trade. Additionally,
213 seed technologists were recruited to calculate the moisture level of these seeds based on their fresh
214 or dry mass. The presence of water in the non-oily portion of the seeds, and hence the rates and
215 processes of degradation at which such chemical reactions are occurring, are not specified by the
216 seed moisture level. Assume that the seeds of a castor bean (*Ricinus communis*) have 50% oil and
217 10% moisture on a wet basis. This means that the non-oily portion will have 20% moisture. On the
218 other hand, seeds from 2% oil-containing common beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris L.*) would have the
219 identical overall moisture level as seeds but just under ten per cent moisture in the non-oily portion.
220 Because of this, even when two seeds have the same amount of seed moisture, their physiological
221 state will be different. The amount of seed oil varies not just throughout cultivars but also depending
222 on the kind and conditions of manufacturing. The activity of water (a_w) is often used within the food
223 industry to determine the moisture content of products, especially seeds. Even though a_w is
224 expressed within 0 and 1.0 and the relative humidity (RH) in percentages, the law is roughly closely
225 linked to the RH as long as it is in homeostasis with the average humidity of the ambient air. It was
226 decided that it is preferable to compare seeds depending upon their a_w or equilibrium RH (eRH)
227 rather than the amount of moisture they contain for research on seed ageing during the first Seed
228 Longevity Workshop of the International Society of Seed Science (Wernigerode, Germany, July 5–8,
229 2015) (Ranganathan, U., and Groot, S. P. C., 2023)The Seed Viability Equation states that (even
230 though it is constrained) seed life increases when seed moisture levels decrease. In reality, seed
231 damage may occur more quickly at very low moisture contents, or under conditions known as "ultra-
232 dry storage," which correspond to eRH values lower than approximately 15–20%.

233

234

235 **3. ROLE OF RAFFINOSE IN SEED:**

236 **3.1 Overview of the Raffinose Family of Oligosaccharides**

- 237
- 238
- 239
- 240
- 241
- 242
- 243
- 244
- 245
- 246
- 247
- 248
- 249
- 250
- Soluble carbohydrates are second only to sucrose in their distribution in higher plants. These carbohydrates are abundant in the seeds of many crops, particularly in the legume family, including soybeans (*Glycine max*), lentils (*Lens culinaris*), and chickpeas (*Cicer arietinum*). Soluble carbohydrates are also found in roots and specialized storage organs like tubers.
 - The raffinose family of oligosaccharides (RFOs) are α -D-galactosides of sucrose, a disaccharide. RFOs include raffinose, stachyose, verbascose, and ajugose, which belong to trisaccharide, tetrasaccharide, pentasaccharide, and hexasaccharide groups, respectively. Structurally, RFOs are α -galactosyl derivatives of sucrose. Raffinose is composed of galactose, glucose, and fructose, while stachyose contains two α -D-galactose units, one α -D-glucose unit, and one β -D-fructose unit.
 - Humans lack alpha-galactosidase, an enzyme necessary to break down RFOs, so they are not absorbed or digested in the upper gastrointestinal tract. Instead, RFOs accumulate in the large intestine of the human digestive system. (Elango et al., 2022)

251 The Raffinose family is comprised of

- 252
- 253
- 254
- 255
- 256
- Raffinose
 - Verbascose
 - Stachyose
 - Ajugose

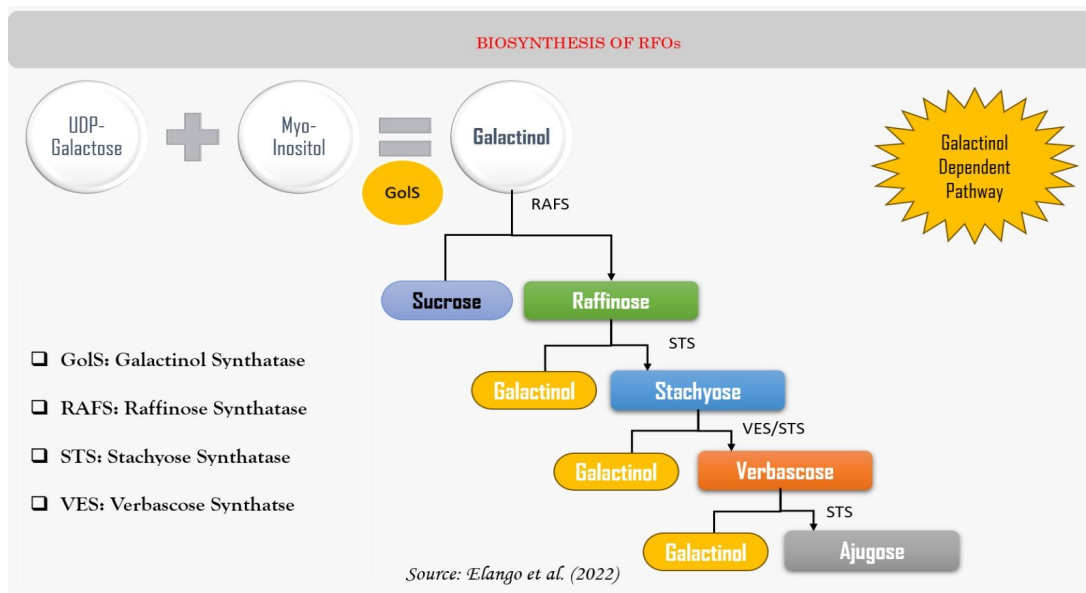


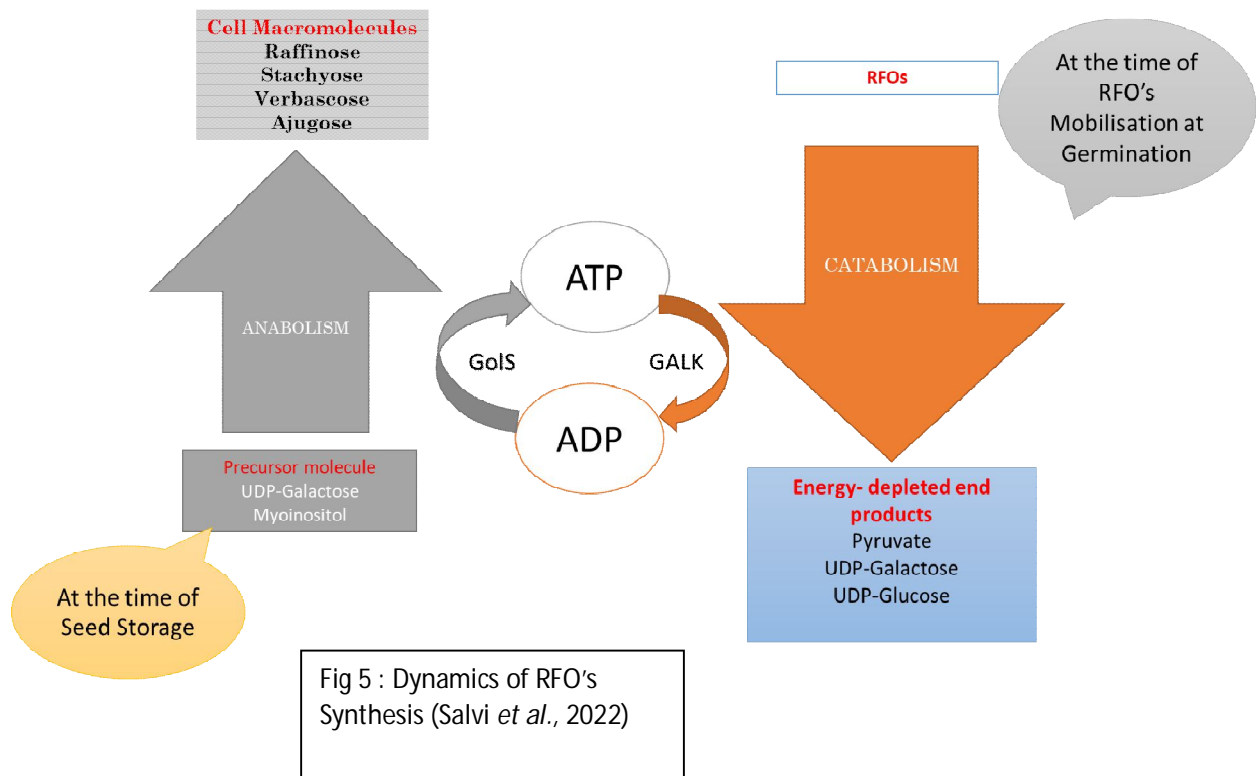
Fig 4: Biosynthesis of RFO's through Galactinol's Dependent Pathway

257 **4. BIOSYNTHESIS OF RFOs**

258

259 RFOs are soluble sugars that are mostly found in higher plants, second only to sucrose. RFOs are
260 frequently discovered in the seeds of a wide variety of agricultural crops, particularly those that belong

261 to the Leguminosae family, which includes *Glycine max* (soybean), *Cicer arietinum* (chickpea), and
262 *Lens culinaris* (lentil). Additionally, they can be gathered from roots and particular storing organs like
263 tubers as well as leaves. For instance, RFO levels in photosynthesizing *Ajugareptans* leaves and
264 *Stachyssieboldii* (Chinese artichoke) tubers can vary from 25 to 80% depending on their dry mass. α -
265 galactosyl transferases catalyze the synthesis of RFO by facilitating the sequential conversion of
266 galactosyl subunits onto sucrose. The enzyme with the greatest significance in the biosynthesis of
267 RFOs is galactinol synthase (GoS). It catalyzes a process that results in galactinol, and it acts as a
268 galactosyl supplier for the creation of other RFO components. The initial component of RFOs,
269 raffinose, is a trisaccharide produced by the enzyme raffinose synthase (RAFS), that utilizes
270 galactinol plus sucrose as inputs. Corresponding to this, stachyose is produced when stachyose
271 synthase (STS) transfers the galactosyl moiety onto raffinose. More galactosyl moiety transference to
272 this chain will end up in greater RFO components like verbascose and ajugose. Verbascose synthase
273 (VES) mediates the synthesis of verbascose by facilitating the binding of galactinol to stachyose.
274 Ajugose is also produced when galactinol is transferred from verbascose to verbascose via STS. The
275 RFO manufacturing mechanism described previously is known as the galactinol-dependent route
276 because galactinol serves as a source for galactosyl at every step of the procedure. Nevertheless, the
277 galactinol-independent route, which is less common than the initial method and has only been
278 identified among two Lamiaceae species—*Coleus blumei* and *Ajugareptans*—is mediated by a
279 different significant enzyme, galactan-galactosyltransferase (GGT). A higher RFO component is
280 synthesized by the GGT-catalyzed translocation of the galactosyl moiety from one RFO molecule to
281 another. Verbascose and raffinose, for example, would be formed when a galactosyl moiety was
282 transferred over one stachyose to a subsequent stachyose by the reaction of GGT. In this method,
283 the GGT regulates the level of cellular RFO in addition to producing higher members of RFO. RFOs
284 are broken down into galactose and sucrose by α -galactosidases. Sucrose is broken down via
285 invertase and sucrose synthetase into fructose and glucose or UDP-glucose and fructose. The ATP-
286 dependent enzyme galactokinase first phosphorylates glucose to produce galactose-1-P (Gal-1P). A
287 pair of distinct pathways, one called the Lelior pathway while the other an alternative pathway found in
288 plants are used to further break down Gal-1-P. Hexose-1-P uridylyltransferase during the Lelior route
289 releases glucose-1-phosphate when it transports the UMP between UDP-glucose to galactose-1-
290 phosphate, culminating in UDP-galactose. Nevertheless, galactose-1-phosphate is broken down by a
291 different process in crops. Galactose-1-phosphate and UTP are converted to UDP-galactose plus PPi
292 by pyrophosphorylase. UDP-galactose is then converted to UDP-glucose by the NAD-dependent
293 UDP-galactose-4-epimerase.



294

295

296 The major catalysts in the RFO synthesis process in plants are GoS, RAFS, STS, and VES. When
 297 these enzymes are altered in crops, other stresses may be acquired and various additional plant
 298 metabolic activities can occur (Elango *et al.*, 2022).
 299

300 5. GENETICS OF RFOs:

301 *GoS* Gene found in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Cicerarietinium*. *Raf* and *Stagenes* are found in *A.*
 302 *thaliana*. *Alpha-Gal* genes are found in Beech, *A. thaliana*

303 5.1 Process of Regulation of Seed Vigour and Longevity

304 Dry seeds must be dispersed from the maternal plant to ensure the continuation of plant propagation.
 305 As seeds mature, significant physiological, biochemical, and physical transformations take place,
 306 ultimately leading to the ability to endure challenging conditions. Dehydration typically happens
 307 towards the end of the seed maturation phase, resulting in the accumulation of potentially protective
 308 substances, particularly soluble sugars like RFOs and sucrose, along with LEA proteins. Working
 309 together, LEA proteins and soluble sugars aid in upholding the structural integrity of proteins and
 310 membranes in dry environments by creating a glassy state that hinders deteriorative processes.
 311 During maturation and dispersal, seeds undergo desiccation, losing water to prepare for survival in
 312 harsh environments. Sugars such as sucrose and RFOs, which are non-reducing, can develop in
 313 seeds to prevent desiccation and avoid damage, with research suggesting a role for RFOs in
 314 desiccation tolerance. For instance, sucrose and RFOs accumulate in the seeds of *Erythrina*
 315 *speciosa*, a native Brazilian tree, before significant changes in water content, and are relocated from
 316 vacuole reserves to the cytosol in the late stages of seed development. It has been suggested that
 317 these substances aid in maintaining the liquid crystalline state of cellular membranes in dry
 318 conditions, positively impacting desiccation resistance and seed longevity. Conversely, Brazilwood

319 seeds typically exhibit orthodox behaviour, surviving desiccation during maturation due to the
320 presence of sugar alcohols like galactopinitol-A, galactopinitol-B, ciceritol, and lipids. Two main
321 mechanisms involving RFOs have been proposed to govern the desiccation process in seeds. The
322 first mechanism, known as 'vitrification,' involves the significant thickening of a cell solution due to
323 water loss, resulting in a plastic-like solid state that helps maintain cell stability, prevent cellular
324 collapse, and preserve hydrogen bonding. This vitrification state is influenced by LEA proteins, HSPs,
325 and RFOs. The second mechanism, 'water substitution,' entails RFOs' hydroxyl groups replacing
326 water molecules within the cell, maintaining crucial hydrophilic interactions for the stability of
327 macromolecules and membrane structure during dehydration. These RFOs also play a key role in
328 seed germination, protecting embryos from desiccation during development, and enhancing seed
329 viability under harsh conditions. While sugars are commonly viewed as signalling molecules or
330 osmoprotectants, their role and accumulation, particularly RFOs, have been extensively studied for
331 their impact on seed vigour and lifespan. Specifically, RFOs have been demonstrated to assist
332 sucrose in preserving membrane integrity by preventing lipid crystallization and ageing processes.

333 Sucrose is the most abundant sugar in maize seeds, but its quantity did not correspond with better
334 storage; rather, raffinose as a mass fraction of total sugars demonstrated a large and favourable link
335 with seed vigour and lifespan. In soybeans likewise, it has been proven that an increase in RFO to
336 sucrose ratio as well as alterations in RFO metabolism genes including *Go/S* and *RAFS* has been
337 favourably related to seed maturity, vigour, and lifespan. Additionally, variations in soluble sugar
338 content, notably RFOs, have been related to seed vigour and germinability in *Arabidopsis* and other
339 species as well. Although the quantity and kind of RFOs that accumulates during seed development
340 differ per species. For example, maize, *Arabidopsis*, and lettuce collect more raffinose than any other
341 RFOs like stachyose and verbascose whereas castor bean accumulates more raffinose and
342 stachyose but not verbascose. In contrast, galactinol and myoinositol levels have been reported
343 excessively high in seeds across various species. Legumes are the major crops that acquire the
344 greatest RFOs in their seeds. Alpha-galactosides (α -Gal), sucrose-1,6-galactosyl derivatives, are one
345 of the principal complex sugars found in leguminous seeds. Furthermore, RFO accumulation and
346 associated α -GAL activity are connected to ripe and developing chickpea seeds. When compared
347 with the control, preventing RFO breakdown mediated by α -Gal with 1-deoxygalactonojirimycin (DGJ)
348 reduced seed germination by roughly 25% in pea plants. The accumulation of galactinol, and sucrose,
349 occurred during the early stages of chickpea pod formation, whereas the raffinose, and stachyose,
350 accumulate during the later stages of seed maturity, which indicated the accumulation of the higher-
351 order RFOs pathway during seed maturation. However, interestingly, some studies revealed that low
352 RFO genotypes of soybean and chickpea did not display delayed germination, indicating that RFOs
353 had no substantial role in increasing seed germination.

354
355 Sucrose is the predominant sugar in maize seeds, but its abundance did not correlate with improved
356 storage conditions; instead, a significant and positive relationship was observed between raffinose
357 levels as a percentage of total sugars and seed vigour and longevity. Similarly, in soybeans, it has
358 been established that an elevated ratio of RFO to sucrose, along with changes in RFO metabolic
359 genes such as *Go/S* and *RAFS*, are linked favourably to seed development, vigour, and lifespan.
360 Furthermore, fluctuations in the content of soluble sugars, particularly RFOs, have been associated
361 with seed vigour and germination in *Arabidopsis* and other plant species. While the type and amount
362 of RFOs that accumulate during seed growth differ among species, maize, *Arabidopsis*, and lettuce
363 tend to amass more raffinose compared to other RFOs like stachyose and verbascose, whereas
364 castor bean accumulates more raffinose and stachyose but not verbascose. Conversely, galactinol
365 and myoinositol levels are notably high in seeds across various plant species. Legumes, in particular,
366 are known to accumulate the highest levels of RFOs in their seeds. Alpha-galactosides (α -Gal), which
367 are sucrose-1,6-galactosyl derivatives, are among the main complex sugars present in leguminous
368 seeds. Moreover, the accumulation of RFOs and the associated activity of α -GAL are linked to the
369 ripening and growth of chickpea seeds. In experiments where RFO breakdown mediated by α -Gal
370 was inhibited using 1-deoxygalactonojirimycin (DGJ), seed germination in pea plants was reduced by
371 approximately 25% compared to the control. Galactinol and sucrose were found to accumulate during
372 the early phases of chickpea pod development, while raffinose and stachyose accumulated during the
373 later stages of seed maturation, indicating the activation of the higher-order RFOs pathway during

374 seed maturation. Interestingly, certain studies have shown that soybean and chickpea genotypes with
375 low RFO levels did not exhibit delayed germination, suggesting that RFOs may not play a significant
376 role in enhancing seed germination.

377 As GolS is a key regulatory enzyme in the production of RFOs, numerous traditional and cutting-edge
378 transgenic methods have been explored to develop plants with enhanced stress resistance, seed
379 vigour, and longevity. While the role of RFOs in plant health is currently under debate, their impact is
380 wide-ranging. (Salvi *et al.*, 2022)

381

382

383 **6. Multifunctional Role of RFOs in Plant Health:**

384 Under conditions of dehydration stress, RFOs provide support to the cell membrane by integrating
385 themselves within the lipid head groups of the bilayer, thereby enhancing RFO levels during
386 desiccation and promoting stability of membrane phospholipids. In situations of abiotic stress, RFOs
387 serve as osmolytes, aiding in the preservation of cell turgor and functioning as antioxidants against
388 reactive oxygen species. While RFOs are a byproduct of the metabolic pathway of inositol, they do
389 not play a direct role in alleviating stress in plants under natural circumstances, unlike other
390 substances derived from the same pathway (Loewus and Murthy, 2000; Sengupta *et al.*, 2012). A rise
391 in RFO levels, particularly raffinose, has been documented in various instances of abiotic stresses like
392 heat, cold, salinity, or drought (Santarius and Milde, 1977; Bachmann *et al.*, 1994; Taji *et al.*, 2002;
393 Pennycooke *et al.*, 2003; Panikulangaraet *al.*, 2004; Nishizawa-Yokoi *et al.*, 2008; Peters and Keller,
394 2009; Peters *et al.*, 2010). Nonetheless, there is limited literature elucidating the specific functional
395 roles of RFOs in enhancing abiotic stress tolerance. Other compounds such as sucrose and proline,
396 known for their contributions to mitigating abiotic stress, also tend to accumulate under similar
397 conditions. Studies have indicated that the removal of biosynthetic enzymes associated with RFOs
398 does not severely impact plant health, offering further evidence in support of the aforementioned
399 assertion.

400 On the other hand, numerous studies contend that RFOs possess beneficial characteristics as a
401 suitable solute. For instance, Hinchae *al.* (2003) demonstrated that RFOs safeguard the cell
402 membrane during dehydration stress by integrating themselves into the lipid head groups of the
403 membrane bilayer. Farrant (2007) further supported this claim by associating the increase in RFOs
404 during desiccation with the stability of membrane phospholipids. Additionally, their lengthy oligomeric
405 structure could positively impact protective liposomes (Cacela and Hinchae, 2006) and function as a
406 scavenger of free radicals (Nishizawa-Yokoi *et al.*, 2008). Moreover, several studies propose that the
407 accumulation of RFOs under abiotic stress conditions serves as osmolytes to uphold cell turgor and
408 act as antioxidants against reactive oxygen species (Nishizawa-Yokoi *et al.*, 2008; van den Ende and
409 Valluru, 2008; Bolouri-Moghaddamet *al.*, 2010; Stoyanova *et al.*, 2011; van den Ende *et al.*, 2011;
410 Peshevet *al.*, 2013). Galactinol synthase (*GolS*) is a vital enzyme involved in RFO production
411 (Saravitzet *al.*, 1987) and is linked to abiotic stress (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, manipulating
412 *GolS* gene expression genetically could provide valuable insights into the role of RFOs in mediating
413 responses to abiotic stressors. These investigations have predominantly focused on *Arabidopsis*
414 *thaliana* or tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) plants, as they exhibit increased galactinol and raffinose
415 levels in response to abiotic stressors (Taji *et al.*, 2002; Zhuo *et al.*, 2013; Himuroet *al.*, 2014;
416 Shimosaka and Ozawa, 2015; Gu *et al.*, 2016). Various forms of *GolS* have been identified in different
417 plant species, each induced under specific abiotic stress conditions. Notably, among the seven known
418 *GolS* genes in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *AtGolS1* and *AtGolS2* are activated by drought, salt, or heat
419 stress, while *AtGolS3* is triggered by cold stress (Taji *et al.*, 2002). Manipulation of these genes
420 through overexpression or knockout techniques can be utilized to study RFO physiology. Studies by
421 Taji *et al.* (2002) and Panikulangaraet *al.* (2004) indicated that upregulation of these genes led to
422 increased galactinol (Gol), raffinose (Raf), and stachyose (Sta) accumulation, subsequently
423 enhancing the plant's tolerance to drought, salt, or cold stress. Panikulangaraet *al.* (2004) also
424 demonstrated that mutant plants lacking *AtGolS1* failed to accumulate heat stress-induced Gol and
425 Raf, suggesting the crucial role of *AtGolS1* in heat stress-induced Raf or Gol accumulation.

426 Research conducted by Peters *et al.* (2010) utilized a double mutant to reveal that despite enhanced
 427 *GoS1* accumulation in *GoS2* mutants, they still exhibited heightened sensitivity to water stress,
 428 leading to rapid water loss and reduced enzymatic activity. This indicates their susceptibility to
 429 drought conditions. These findings highlight the absence of RFO storage or transportation in
 430 *Arabidopsis*, pointing towards the involvement of various biosynthetic pathways facilitated by different
 431 *GoS* isoforms. Additionally, the introduction of the *Medicago falcata* *Gols* (*MfGoS1*) gene into tobacco
 432 conferred cold temperature tolerance, as demonstrated by Zhuo *et al.* (2013). Valluru and van den
 433 Ende (2011) elucidated the role of galactinol in signalling RFOs to regulate stress responses,
 434 including a response to pathogen invasion, underscoring the contribution of RFOs in defence against
 435 biotic stress. *GoS* was found to enhance the expression of defence-related genes like *PR1a*, *PR1b*,
 436 and *NtACS1* in tobacco during infections by *Botrytis cinerea* and *Erwinia carotovora* (Kim *et al.*, 2008).
 437 Furthermore, *GoS* was shown to facilitate salicylic acid (SA) signalling post-pathogen invasion,
 438 triggering the expression of the *PR1a* gene to manage disease progression (Couée *et al.*, 2006). The
 439 presence of W-box cis-elements in the promoters of RFOs (mainly *GoS* and *RafS*), regulated by ABA-
 440 inducible WRKY (Wang *et al.*, 2009), suggests a potential role of RFOs in SA and ABA signalling
 441 under both biotic and abiotic stress conditions. Figure 3 illustrates the significance of RFOs in plant
 442 well-being, encompassing their impact on seed germination, seed maturation, desiccation tolerance,
 443 as well as biotic and abiotic stress resilience. (Elango *et al.*, 2022).

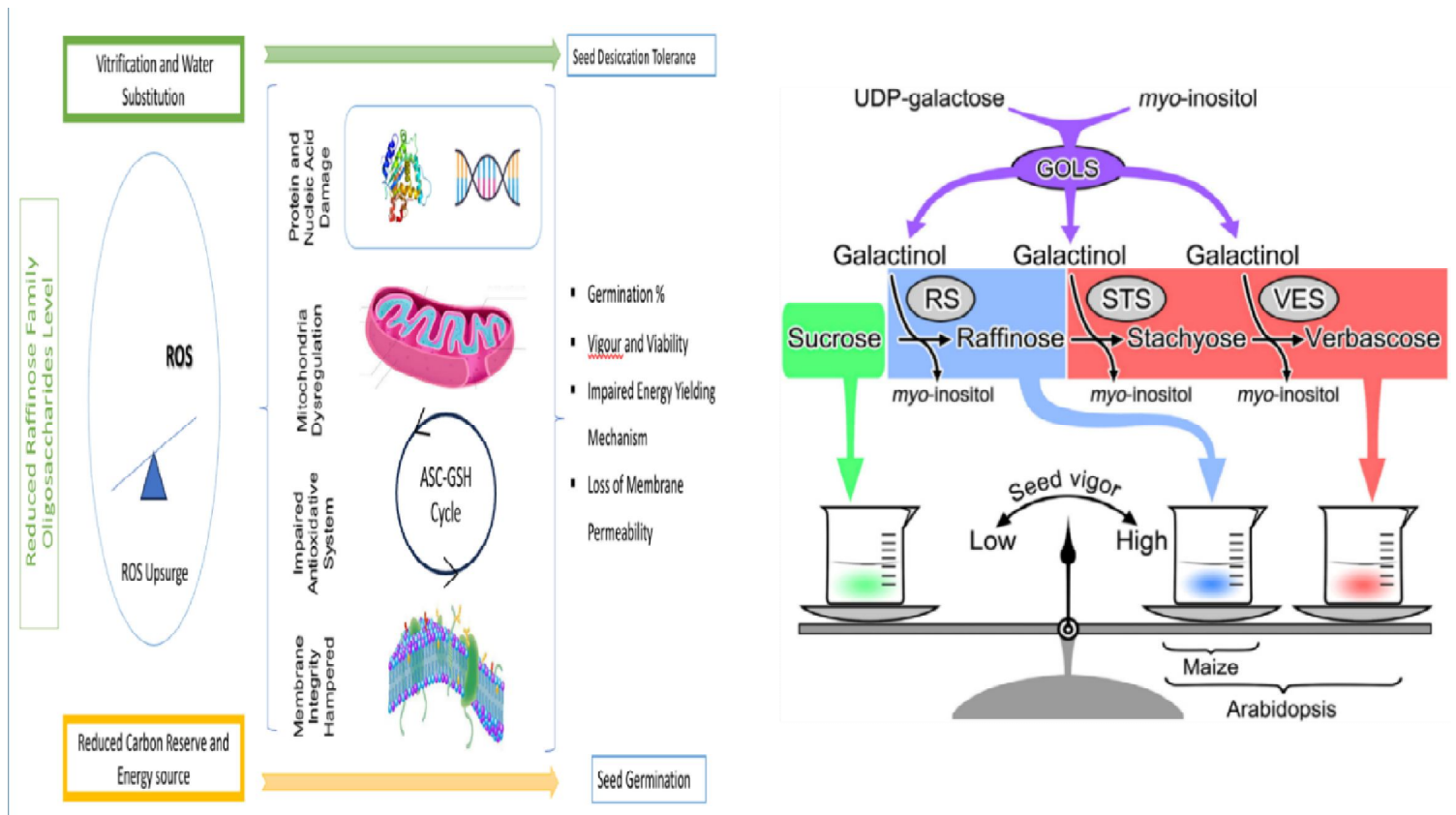


Fig 6: Multifunctional Role of RFO's (Source: Salvi *et al.*, 2022)

444
 445
 446

447 7. SUMMARY AND WAY FORWARD

448 Raffinose family oligosaccharides (RFOs) hold potential as beneficial components in food, though
449 their multifaceted benefits for human and animal health are not yet fully recognized. RFOs positively
450 impact gut microbiota, the large intestines, and colon health and could be used therapeutically to
451 alleviate conditions like inflammation, diabetes, and allergies. However, RFOs are also linked to
452 causing flatulence in both humans and animals, which affects the adoption of crops high in RFOs,
453 such as grain legumes, in food and feed systems. Therefore, finding the optimal concentration of
454 RFOs in crops is crucial to promoting them as functional foods. The exact concentration necessary for
455 human health benefits remains an area for further research. Additionally, apart from Japan, most
456 countries have not yet recognized RFOs as functional foods.

457 Over the past 50 years, seed storage science has evolved significantly, moving from anecdotal
458 practices to advances grounded in biochemistry, genomics, and biophysics. These advancements
459 have improved our understanding of how seeds achieve cytoplasmic solidification upon drying and
460 how the properties of intracellular glasses relate to the kinetics of ageing. Seed ageing is
461 characterized by the random and continuous oxidative degradation of proteins, lipids, and nucleic
462 acids, which cannot be fully countered by the cells' antioxidant defenses. The field of seed storage
463 biology is complex and interdisciplinary, encompassing seed physiology, biophysics, biochemistry,
464 and various 'omics' technologies, including genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics,
465 ionomics, and phenomics. The progress in these areas has enhanced our ability to predict seed
466 storage behaviour and optimize storage conditions to prolong seed viability, thereby supporting
467 agriculture, ex-situ conservation, and the sustainable use of seeds. (Buitink&Leprince, 2008)
468 (Nadarajan et al., 2023).

469

470 8. CONCLUSION

471 In conclusion, Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides (RFOs) play a crucial role in seed physiology,
472 significantly enhancing seed vigour and longevity. These intricate carbohydrates are widely found in
473 the seeds of various crops, particularly legumes, where they have a fundamental role in enhancing
474 stress tolerance, regulating germination processes, and ensuring overall seed well-being. The diverse
475 functions of RFOs encompass cytoplasmic vitrification, aiding in the stabilization of cellular structure
476 by displacing water within the seed matrix. This particular process is essential for preserving cellular
477 integrity during desiccation and preventing harm from osmotic stress.

478 Furthermore, RFOs offer osmoprotection in desiccated seeds, shielding cells from the adverse
479 impacts of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and ensuring enzyme stability. This protective function is
480 crucial for maintaining the structural and functional soundness of proteins, thereby averting
481 conformational alterations that may compromise seed viability. Through alleviating oxidative stress
482 and bolstering seed resilience to environmental variations, RFOs play a pivotal role in upholding seed
483 longevity and vitality.

484 Comprehending the significance of RFOs in seed viability and longevity presents noteworthy
485 implications for agricultural methodologies and seed preservation tactics. By harnessing the protective
486 and stabilizing attributes of RFOs, there exists the potential to enhance crop yield, refine seed
487 preservation techniques, and ultimately have a positive impact on the global economy. The scope of
488 RFOs transcends plant physiology, as nascent studies indicate their multifaceted advantages in
489 human and animal well-being. Their functional characteristics as prebiotics and their involvement in
490 regulating gut health suggest a promising avenue for crafting functional foods with health-promoting
491 qualities.

492 Hence, further exploration is imperative to comprehensively delve into the diverse advantages of
493 RFOs. Scrutinizing their mechanisms of operation, optimal concentrations for various uses, and
494 potential health benefits will pave the way for innovative applications in agriculture, food technology,
495 and healthcare. By enhancing our grasp of RFOs, novel prospects can be unlocked to boost crop
496 productivity, enhance food security, and contribute to the overall welfare of human and animal
497 populations.

498

499 Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)

500 Option 1:

501 Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language
502 Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during
503 writing or editing of manuscripts.

504 Option 2:

505 Author(s) hereby declare that generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models,
506 etchave been used during writing or editing of manuscripts. This explanation will include the
507 name, version, model, and source of the generative AI technology and as well as all input
508 prompts provided to the generative AI technology

509 Details of the AI usage are given below:

510 1.

511 2.

512 3.

513 9. REFERENCES: -

- 514 1) Aguilera, Y., Martín-Cabrejas, M. A., Benítez, V., Mollá, E., López-Andréu, F. J., and Esteban,
515 R. M. (2009). Changes in carbohydrate fraction during dehydration process of common
516 legumes. *J. Food Compos. Anal.* 22, 678–683. doi: 10.1016/j.jfca.2009.02.012
- 517 2) Amorim, C., Silvério, S. C., Cardoso, B. B., Alves, J. I., Pereira, M. A., and Rodrigues, L. R.
518 (2020). In vitro fermentation of raffinose to unravel its potential as prebiotic ingredient. *LWT*
519 126:109322. doi: 10.1016/j.lwt.2020.109322
- 520 3) Bachmann, M., and Keller, F. (1995). Metabolism of the Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides in
521 Leaves of *Ajugareptans* L. (Inter- and Intracellular Compartmentation). *Plant Physiol.* 109,
522 991–998. doi: 10.1104/pp.109.3.991
- 523 4) Blackman, S. A., Obendorf, R. L., and Leopold, A. C. (1992). Maturation Proteins and Sugars
524 in Desiccation Tolerance of Developing Soybean Seeds. *Plant Physiol.* 100, 225–230. doi:
525 10.1104/pp.100.1.225
- 526 5) Blöchl, A., Peterbauer, T., & Richter, A. (2007). Inhibition of raffinose oligosaccharide
527 breakdown delays germination of pea seeds. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, 164(8), 1093–1096.
528 doi: 10.1016/j.jplph.2006.10.010
- 529 6) Buitink, J., & Leprince, O. (2008). Intracellular glasses and seed survival in the dry state. In
530 *Comptes Rendus. Biologies* (Vol. 331, Issue 10, pp. 788–795). Cellule MathDoc/Centre
531 Mersenne. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crv.2008.08.002>
- 532 7) Couée, I., Sulmon, C., Gouesbet, G., and El Amrani, A. (2006). Involvement of soluble sugars
533 in reactive oxygen species balance and responses to oxidative stress in plants. *J. Exp. Bot.*
534 57, 449–459. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erj027
- 535 8) Dobrenel, T., Marchive, C., Azzopardi, M., Clément, G., Moreau, M., Sormani, R., et al.
536 (2013).). Sugar metabolism and the plant target of rapamycin kinase: a sweet operaTOR?.
537 *Front. Plant Sci.* 4:93. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2013.00093
- 538 9) Dunna, V. (2009). Role of Sorption Properties and Water Status in Control of Seed Longevity.
539 *Current Science*.
- 540 10) Elango, D., Rajendran, K., Van der Laan, L., Sebastiar, S., Raigne, J., Thaiparambil, N. A., El
541 Haddad, N., Raja, B., Wang, W., Ferela, A., Chiteri, K. O., Thudi, M., Varshney, R. K., Chopra,
542 S., Singh, A., & Singh, A. K. (2022). Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides: Friend or Foe for

- 543 Human and Plant Health? In *Frontiers in Plant Science* (Vol. 13). Frontiers Media SA.
544 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2022.829118>
- 545 11) French, D. (1954). *The Raffinose Family of Oligosaccharides*. New York: Academic Press
546 12) Frias, J., Bakhsh, A., Jones, D. A., Arthur, A. E., Vidal-Valverde, C., Rhodes, M. J. C., et al.
547 (1999). Genetic analysis of the raffinose oligosaccharide pathway in lentil seeds. *J. Exp. Bot.*
548 50, 469–476. doi: 10.1093/jxb/50.333.469
- 549 13) Gerna, D., Ballesteros, D., Arc, E., Stöggli, W., Seal, C. E., Marami-Zonouz, N., Na, C. S.,
550 Kranner, I., & Roach, T. (2022). Does oxygen affect ageing mechanisms of *Pinus densiflora*
551 seeds? A matter of cytoplasmic physical state. In S. Penfield (Ed.), *Journal of Experimental*
552 *Botany* (Vol. 73, Issue 8, pp. 2631–2649). Oxford University Press (OUP).
553 <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erac024>
- 554 14) Hagely, K. B., Jo, H., Kim, J.-H., Hudson, K. A., and Bilyeu, K. (2020). Molecular assisted
555 breeding for improved carbohydrate profiles in soybean seed. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* 133, 1189–
556 1200. doi: 10.1007/s00122-020-03541-z.
- 557 15) Kim, M. S., Cho, S. M., Kang, E. Y., Im, Y. J., Hwangbo, H., Kim, Y. C., et al. (2008).
558 Galactinol is a Signaling Component of the Induced Systemic Resistance Caused by
559 *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* O6 Root Colonization. *Mol. Plant Microbe Interact.* 21, 1643–
560 1653. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-21-12-1643
- 561 16) Koster, K. L. (1991). Glass Formation and Desiccation Tolerance in Seeds. *Plant Physiol.* 96,
562 302–304. doi: 10.1104/pp.96.1.302
- 563 17) Leopold, A. C., Sun, W. Q., & Bernal-Lugo, I. (1994). The glassy state in seeds: analysis and
564 function. In *Seed Science Research* (Vol. 4, Issue 3, pp. 267–274). Cambridge University
565 Press (CUP). <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0960258500002294>
- 566 18) Li, T., Zhang, Y., Wang, D., Liu, Y., Dirk, L. M. A., Goodman, J., Downie, A. B., Wang, J.,
567 Wang, G., & Zhao, T. (2017). Regulation of Seed Vigor by Manipulation of Raffinose Family
568 Oligosaccharides in Maize and *Arabidopsis thaliana*. In *Molecular Plant* (Vol. 10, Issue 12, pp.
569 1540–1555). Elsevier BV. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molp.2017.10.014>
- 570 19) Maeda, M. H., Toda, K., & Kaga, A. (2024). Novel Soybean Variety Lacking Raffinose
571 Synthase 2 Activity. In *ACS Omega* (Vol. 9, Issue 2, pp. 2134–2144). American Chemical
572 Society (ACS). <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsomega.3c04585>
- 573 20) Nadarajan, J., Walters, C., Pritchard, H. W., Ballesteros, D., & Colville, L. (2023). Seed
574 Longevity—The Evolution of Knowledge and a Conceptual Framework. In *Plants* (Vol. 12,
575 Issue 3, p. 471). MDPI AG. <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants12030471>
- 576 21) Nagura, T., Muraguchi, H., Uchino, K., Aritsuka, T., and Benno, Y. (1999). Effects of ingestion
577 of raffinose-rich soup on the fecal flora and daily defecation in humans. *J. Intest. Microbiol.*
578 13, 1–7.
- 579 22) Peterbauer, T., Mucha, J., Mach, L., and Richter, A. (2002b). Chain Elongation of Raffinose in
580 Pea Seeds. *J. Biol. Chem.* 277, 194–200. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M109734200
- 581 23) Raman, M., Saiprasad, G. V. S., and Madhavakrishna, K. (2019). From seed to feed:
582 assessment and alleviation of Raffinose Family Oligosaccharides (RFOs) of seed- and
583 sprout-flours of soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.] - a commercial aspect. *Int. Food Res. J.* 26,
584 105–116.
- 585 24) Ranganathan, U., & Groot, S. P. C. (2023). Seed Longevity and Deterioration. In *Seed*
586 *Science and Technology* (pp. 91–108). Springer Nature Singapore.
587 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5888-5_5
- 588 25) Salvi, P., Saxena, S. C., Petla, B. P., Kamble, N. U., Kaur, H., Verma, P., ... Rao, V. (2016).
589 Differentially expressed galactinol synthase(s) in chickpea are implicated in seed vigor and
590 longevity by limiting the age induced ROS accumulation. *Scientific Reports*, 6(1).
591 doi:10.1038/srep35088
- 592 26) Salvi, P., Varshney, V., & Majee, M. (2022). Raffinose family oligosaccharides (RFOs): role in
593 seed vigor and longevity. In *Bioscience Reports* (Vol. 42, Issue 10). Portland Press Ltd.
594 <https://doi.org/10.1042/bsr20220198>
- 595 27) Trugo, L. C., Farah, A., and Cabral, L. (1995). Oligosaccharide distribution in Brazilian soya
596 bean cultivars. *Food Chem.* 52, 385–387. doi: 10.1016/0308-8146(95)93286-Z
- 597 28) Walters, C. (2015). Orthodoxy, recalcitrance and in-between: describing variation in seed
598 storage characteristics using threshold responses to water loss. In *Planta* (Vol. 242, Issue 2,

599
600
601

pp. 397–406). Springer Science and Business Media LLC. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00425-015-2312-6>

□